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National Morale

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THE United States is committed to a policy of building a strong national defense. It is generally recognized that the increase in the physical aspects of national defense which are deemed essential cannot be accomplished without serious disruptions to the way of life which citizens follow ordinarily. Moreover, if these disruptions are to continue as long as anticipated—ten years to a generation—the ensuing frustration will break down morale unless antidotes for this breakdown can be devised.

Frustrations become more tolerable if individuals have confidence in the competence of those who advise with legislators in policy making, and can understand the reasons for the restrictions on "life as usual" which are necessitated by some of the policies. Junior college administrators and faculty members can aid materially in morale building in connection with both of the factors listed. While the means are numerous through which this aid may be given, three are suggested for consideration.

The first means involves the need for some clear thinking about the function of the junior college in a program of national defense.

The national defense program is of necessity conceived in terms

of millions of men and billions of dollars. To attain success in a program of such magnitude, institutions which are non-essential to national defense must be eliminated. Because of the comparatively small size of many individual junior colleges, some administrators and teachers have classified these institutions as non-essential, and have concluded that any steps to guarantee survival of these institutions are unpatriotic. Such a conclusion is an example of the lack of clear thinking which must be discontinued.

These administrators and teachers are not recognizing the tremendously important educational function which junior colleges have served and will continue to serve. It is not a question simply of institutional survival. It is rather a question of perpetuating, during times when the need is greatest, an educational service which the country cannot afford to lose, and an educational service which junior colleges alone are serving.

The second means by which junior college administrators and faculty members can aid in preventing a breakdown of citizen morale involves helping to supply the answers to the question, "Why are restrictions necessary?" This re-

quires two responsibilities of a serious nature.

Junior college staff members must keep well informed regarding developments connected with the national defense program. This involves knowing what is taking place, and distinguishing between the propaganda reports of special interest groups and more objective reports from less prejudiced sources.

As if this great task were not enough, the well-informed junior college teacher and administrator must devise means by which his information can be communicated to the clientele served by his college. If successful means of communication are devised, the respect for the college will be increased materially because of the essential service provided.

The third means for preventing a breakdown of morale involves the assumption by all administrators and teachers of the major responsibility for advice-giving to policy makers in the field in which educators are more competent than any other group—the field of education. Such an act assumes that the people of this country respect the competence of educators—an assumption which is in no way an unfounded one.

The exercise of this function of influencing national policy concerning education is not a simple task during times of emergency. It is during such times that non-educators have traditionally exercised powerful influence in educa-

tional and training programs. For educators to make their superior competence count, it is necessary to overcome this traditional procedure. To yield the responsibility to non-educational groups is to admit that in times of greatest stress the competence of the educator in his field is inadequate. Such an admission indicates a woeful lack of professional pride.

A program for educating manpower during the period of emergency has been developed in the American Association of Junior Colleges. This program was prepared by competent educators who served on the Association's Committees on Legislation and on National Defense. The program was adopted unanimously by the representatives of the junior colleges who attended the annual meeting of the Association. Members of Congress who are working so diligently to solve the many problems confronting the country deserve to have the assistance provided by the proposed program.

If the maintenance of citizen morale depends in part on having confidence in those who advise with legislators in the formulation of national policies, then junior college administrators and teachers have an inescapable obligation to see that congressmen have the assistance provided by the Association's plan for an educational program. The manner in which this obligation is met will go far toward preventing a breakdown of the nation's morale.

An Analysis of Health Interests of 1,000 Junior College Students in California

JOSEPH E. LANTAGNE

CALIFORNIA law requires the inclusion of health instruction in the junior college curriculum. The course content is the responsibility of the administrators of each junior college and in many cases is determined by the individual instructor. Unlike many of the more traditional subjects, health instruction is not static. It is based on a group of facts constantly being modified and added to by scientific progress. Constant study and research is necessary to remain abreast of this field.

Leading educators and psychologists have long agreed that if education is to be meaningful it must be based on pupil interests and needs in specific fields. This study is an attempt to ascertain the health interests of junior college students by using a health interest inventory¹ prepared by Oliver E. Byrd, M.D., Director of Health Education, Stanford University.

Pasadena City College, which represents a large residential district, and Ventura Junior College, which represents a smaller and more rural industrial community, were chosen to participate in this study because of their community structure and willingness to cooperate. These schools are representative of the junior colleges of California and the students attending represent a good cross sec-

tion of the junior college enrollment in the State.

In most cases the inventories were administered to health education classes and in such a manner as to encourage pupil participation. The interests indicated on the inventories were transferred to International Business Machine cards for accurate sorting and scoring. The results were analyzed in the following manner:

1. Determination of the items of greater and lesser interest.
2. Determination of the 50 items of greater interest to both boys and girls.
3. Determination of interest according to major health areas.
4. Correlation to determine similarity and dissimilarity of interests between high school and junior college students.

The Validity and Reliability of the Inventory

1. Dr. Byrd established the health inventory by choosing health problems from over 10,000 health articles in leading medical and public health journals. Frequent discussions of these prob-

¹Byrd, Oliver E., "Health Problems of Significance for Course and Curriculum Construction." *Research Quarterly*, XXI (March, 1950), 3-10.

lems in professional medical and health journals would appear to establish these problems as significant ones.

2. This inventory was originally administered to 640 high school students on a trial basis which eliminated over-technical terms and other confusing factors.

3. This inventory has been used to determine the health interests of 3,000 secondary school pupils.²

4. Correlation of .87 between test and retest with one group; .91 between test and retest of another group; and .92 between test and retest of a third group. All testing was done in classes on the high school level.

5. Using the split-half method on 200 inventories, there was a .91 correlation.

The Reliability of this Study

1. When considering the major health areas, this study of junior college students correlated .94 with the study of 3,000 secondary school students.

2. About 80 per cent of the same health problems appeared in the 50 items of greatest interest for both the high school and junior college students.

3. When the 50 items of greatest interest to junior college boys were compared to the 50 items of

greatest interest to junior college girls, approximately 80 per cent of these items were identical.

The items of the inventory used in this study present a comprehensive list of health problems which is too unwieldy to use for instruction. In order to use the course time to its greatest advantage, it is expected that the items of greatest importance as expressed by the students will be given adequate consideration and that items of lesser interest will be treated accordingly. The Education Policies Commission, the Commission on Higher Education, and other reliable groups have given impetus to the consideration of many of these expressed health interests.

This study indicated the junior college students had about 25 per cent greater interest in health problems than the high school students. For example, 79 per cent of the junior college students responded to the item of greatest interest as compared to 66 per cent of the secondary school students.

Listed in rank order in Table I are the 50 leading health problems of 1,000 junior college students.³

TABLE I
AN ITEM ANALYSIS OF HEALTH INTERESTS IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE OF 1,000 JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS
(500 Boys and 500 Girls)

Order	Item	Percentage of Students Interested
1.	Sex Instruction	79.0
2.	Causes of Mental Illness	78.3

²Lantagne, Joseph E., "An Analysis of Health Interests of 3,000 Secondary School Students." *Research Quarterly*, XXI (March, 1950) 33-39.

³Due to limited space, only the leading 50 of the 300 health problems are included in Table I. A complete list may be obtained from the author.

3. Lifelong Care of the Eyes	76.8
4. Preparation for Marriage	71.4
5. Tobacco and Human Health	71.0
6. Juvenile Delinquency	68.0
7. Cancer	66.9
8. Social Diseases	64.6
9. Problems of Alcohol	64.7
10. Jealousy	62.9
11. Conquest of Disease	61.9
12. Causes of Suicide	61.5
13. How to Report Accidents	59.3
14. Safest Age to Have a Baby	59.0
15. Can Drug Addicts Be Cured?	58.9
16. Effects of Tea and Coffee	58.3
17. Sweets and Dental Decay	58.2
18. Communicable Disease	58.1
19. The Ability to Have Children	57.5
20. Mental Health and Marriage	57.5
21. Health Hazards with Foods	57.4
22. How to Have Good Posture	56.9
23. Poliomyelitis	56.3
24. Types of Mental Disorders	55.6
25. Atomic Warfare	55.4
26. Pregnancy and Health	55.4
27. Relaxation (resting)	55.2
28. Danger of High I.Q.	55.0
29. Social Diseases in School	54.5
30. Deaths of Mothers in Childbirth	54.1
31. Problems of Tooth Decay	53.4
32. Restaurant Sanitation	53.4
33. Atomic Radiation	53.3
34. Dangers of Sleeping Pills	53.2
35. Safety in Water	53.0
36. Sunburn	52.6
37. Psychological Basis of Crime	52.3
38. Cancer Is Inherited?	52.1
39. Speed and Accidents	52.0
40. Common Sicknesses	51.6
41. Water Contamination	51.4
42. Marijuana	51.3
43. Nervous Fatigue	51.1
44. Drunken Driving	50.2
45. Schools and Juvenile Delinquency	50.2
46. Fatigue as a Health Problem	50.1
47. War and Disease	50.0
48. Hit and Run Drivers	49.9
49. Major Health Problems	49.7
50. Food During Pregnancy	49.5

allotted for health instruction in most California junior colleges is usually too limited to discuss adequately all the areas of health instruction. Table II indicates the percentage of student interest in these major areas.

TABLE II

INTERESTS OF 1,000 JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS IN MAJOR HEALTH AREAS

Order	Item	Percentage of Students Interested
1.	Habit Forming Substances	52.6
2.	Mental Health	46.4
3.	Family Health	44.2
4.	Health as a Social Problem	39.8
5.	Safety	39.4
6.	The Care of Special Organs	37.2
7.	Exercise and Body Mechanics	36.2
8.	Chronic and Degenerative Disorders	35.9
9.	Health and the Physical Environment	35.7
10.	Fatigue and Rest	34.6
11.	Infection and Immunity	34.4
12.	Health as a Social Accomplishment	33.0
13.	Nutrition and Health	32.2
14.	Heredity and Eugenics	30.1
15.	Excretion and Health	27.8
16.	School Health	27.7
17.	Community Health Services	26.2
18.	Trends and Possibilities	22.8
19.	Occupational Health	21.6
20.	Health Services and Facilities	21.5
21.	International Health	17.7

Many of the colleges have separate courses for boys and girls. In the event of segregated classes or of classes with a predominance of either sex, the following tables may be used to further guide instruction.

The 300 health problems have been categorized into 21 general Major Health Areas. The time

TABLE III

THE 50 HEALTH ITEMS OF GREATEST
INTEREST TO 500 JUNIOR COLLEGE
BOYS

Order	Item	Percentage of Students Interested
1.	Sex Instruction	81.0
2.	Lifelong Care of the Eyes	72.8
3.	Tobacco and Human Health	72.4
4.	Causes of Mental Illness	71.8
5.	Preparation for Marriage	66.9
6.	Problems of Alcohol	66.0
7.	Atomic Warfare	66.0
8.	Problems of Tooth Decay	64.4
9.	Juvenile Delinquency	64.0
10.	Cancer	63.4
11.	Conquest of Disease	62.8
12.	Social Diseases	62.0
13.	Atomic Radiation	60.8
14.	How to Report Accidents	60.4
15.	Effects of Tea and Coffee	59.6
16.	Health Hazards with Foods	59.6
17.	Speed and Accidents	59.6
18.	Sweets and Dental Decay	58.8
19.	Sunburn	58.8
20.	Common Sickneses	58.0
21.	Jealousy	55.4
22.	Communicable Disease	55.2
23.	Danger of High I.Q.	54.8
24.	Heart Disease and Public Health	54.4
25.	Can Drug Addicts Be Cured?	54.2
26.	Marihuana	54.0
27.	Safest Age to Have a Baby	53.6
28.	Types of Mental Disorders	53.2
29.	Relaxation (resting)	53.2
30.	The Problem of Physical Unfitness	53.2
31.	Restaurant Sanitation	53.0
32.	Best Number of Working Hours	53.0
33.	Causes of Suicides	52.8
34.	Drunken Driving	52.6
35.	Water Contamination	52.2
36.	How to Have Good Posture	52.0
37.	Fatigue as a Health Problem	51.4
38.	Major Health Problems	51.2
39.	The Ability to Have Children	50.6
40.	Treasury Department and Narcotics	50.6
41.	Social Diseases in School	50.0
42.	Psychological Basis of Crime	49.6
43.	"Athlete's Foot"	49.6
44.	Mental Health and Marriage	49.4
45.	Poliomyelitis	49.2

46.	War and Diseases	49.2
47.	Penicillin and Infection	49.2
48.	Is There an Athletic Heart?	49.0
49.	How to Use a Gun Properly	48.6
50.	Hit and Run Drivers	48.0

TABLE IV

THE 50 HEALTH ITEMS OF GREATEST
INTEREST TO 500 JUNIOR COLLEGE
GIRLS

Order	Item	Percentage of Students Interested
1.	Causes of Mental Illness	84.8
2.	Lifelong Care of the Eyes	80.8
3.	Sex Instruction	77.0
4.	Preparation for Marriage	76.0
5.	Juvenile Delinquency	72.0
6.	Cancer	70.4
7.	Jealousy	70.4
8.	Causes of Suicides	70.2
9.	Tobacco and Human Health	69.6
10.	Social Diseases	67.4
11.	Death of Mothers in Childbirth	67.4
12.	Mental Health and Marriage	65.6
13.	Food During Pregnancy	65.6
14.	Safest Age to Have a Baby	64.4
15.	The Ability to Have Children	64.4
16.	Exercise and Menstruation	64.4
17.	Can Drug Addicts Be Cured?	63.6
18.	Problems of Alcohol	63.4
19.	Poliomyelitis	63.4
20.	Problems of Tooth Decay	62.4
21.	How to Have Good Posture	61.8
22.	Dangers of Sleeping Pills	61.2
23.	Conquest of Disease	61.0
24.	Communicable Disease	61.0
25.	Safety in Water	59.6
26.	Social Diseases in School	59.0
27.	Breast or Bottle Feeding	58.8
28.	How to Report Accidents	58.2
29.	The Rh Blood Factor	58.2
30.	Types of Mental Disorders	58.0
31.	Sweets and Dental Decay	57.6
32.	Relaxation (resting)	57.2
33.	Cancer Is Inherited?	57.2
34.	Effects of Tea and Coffee	57.0
35.	Births in Hospital or at Home	56.8
36.	Nervous Fatigue	56.6
37.	Early Rising after Childbirth	56.6
38.	Health Hazards with Foods	55.2
39.	Danger of High I.Q.	55.2
40.	Menstrual Problems	55.2

41. Psychological Basis of Crime	55.0
42. Socialized Medicine	54.0
43. Mental Hygiene and Babyhood	54.0
44. Restaurant Sanitation	53.8
45. Causes of Speech Disorders	53.6
46. Infant and Maternal Deaths	53.4
47. Schools and Juvenile Delinquency	53.0
48. Prevention of Mental Illness	52.8
49. Mental Hygiene of Normal Persons	52.6
50. Atomic Warfare	51.0

Conclusions

1. There is a high degree of pupil interest in health problems.

2. About 80 per cent of the health problems of greatest interest are common to both boys and girls.

3. There are differences in health interests of boys and girls which justify some support of segregated classes.

4. There are a number of problems heretofore either considered non-essential or relegated to obscurity which are of considerable interest to pupils, i.e., juvenile delinquency and cancer.

5. There is a large core of health interests common to both the junior college and high school students.

6. In many instances specific items are a better guide to teaching than are the major health areas.

7. Junior college students demonstrated over 25 per cent greater interest in health problems than did high school pupils. Maturity may be the primary factor for this.

8. The general area of nutrition, although usually accepted by instructors as of major interest to students, is only of "average" interest to students.

9. The overall response to the inventory by girls was slightly greater than by boys.

10. Girls indicated considerably greater interest than boys in the area of Family Health.

11. Boys indicated greater interest in the areas of Exercise and Safety.

Recommendations

1. Curriculum coordination should utilize the findings of pupil interests in health to aid in developing the health curriculum.

2. Individual instructors should be encouraged to survey their classes to determine health interests.

3. The health instructors should alter the content of their courses to conform to the interests of the students in their classes.

4. If separate courses for girls and boys are conducted, instructional materials should to a high degree correspond to interest findings according to sex.

5. Student interests and needs are not synonymous. Instructors must exercise due caution to consider both interests and needs of students while constructing curriculums and altering health courses.

6. Broader and more thorough health interest studies are recommended.

Use of the Morale-Type Survey On the College Level

CHARLES A. WEDEMEYER

The morale-type survey has been used with some success in industry where there has been increasing recognition of the importance of knowing the attitudes of workers toward their work, their supervisors and the whole industrial structure of which the workers are a part.

All persons practice certain techniques of ascertaining the feelings of others toward them. Emotion affects performance and interpersonal relations. Recent studies have shown that people tend to try to solve their problems on an emotional level even when in full possession of information which would enable them to solve problems rationally.¹

"Civilization," said George F. Moore, "develops only where considerable numbers of men work together for common ends. Such unity is brought about, not so much by community of bare ideas as by community of the feeling by which

ideas are 'emotionalized' and become beliefs and motives. The unifying, like the divisive, forces of civilization may thus be described as psychological."²

It is important that persons in control of institutions have an understanding of the feelings of the people who are concerned with them in the activities of the institution — whether as workers, patrons, or students. It has long been a truism that education begins with the student, and that the first task of the administrator and teacher is to *know the student*. This has resulted in elaborate and "comprehensive" devices which are employed to record in permanent form what is known about the individual student.

The morale-type study is a means of becoming acquainted with the feelings, interests, aversions, likes, dislikes, of a group. Insofar as the morale-type survey is dependent upon subjective expression by group members, the survey measures opinion more than it does actual states of mind. Genuine opinion is often concealed because of social pressures. However, as Gray points out, "it is not legitimate to discard all opinion surveys merely because people's actions do not invariably harmonize with their verbal expressions."³ The morale-type sur-

¹"Emotion is now generally thought of as an awareness, a distinctive conscious process that is quite separate from intellectual processes." Hebb, D. O. *The Organization of Behavior*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949. 147.

²Moore, George F. in Prefatory Note to: Denison, J. H. *Emotion as the Basis of Civilization*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1928. v.

³Gray, J. Stanley. *Psychology in Human Affairs*. New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1946. 319.

vey, though not based solely on outward, visible, and overt behavior, but concerned with subjective expressions of attitude, feeling, or opinion, is a source of cues for direct institutional action.

If it is to be judged by its product, it is vital that the institution carefully consider the nature and needs of its students (individually and as a group or groups) in drafting its operational plan, hiring its faculty, purchasing its equipment, and building its campus.

Survey to Determine Student "Profile"

In the spring of 1950, the Racine Center⁴ conducted a morale-type survey to determine, so far as possible, a profile of the attitudes of the student body toward the educational program. This "profile" will be added to by a "school-leavers" survey to be conducted in the future. With these informational aids, the faculty will have at its disposal a fairly accurate delineation of the human materials with which it must work.

The junior college has had phenomenal growth because it has based its program on young people's needs not adequately met by other institutions.⁵ Continual curriculum revision and evaluation on the part of the institution are necessary so that student needs will be met to an optimum degree.

The survey conducted by the Racine Center required the use of two questionnaires, which were mailed to the students: one to be filled out by the student, signed,

and returned to the student adviser; the other to be filled out, but not signed. A blank envelope was included with the unsigned questionnaire so that it could be sealed and placed in a marked container in the building. It was felt necessary to use both signed and unsigned questionnaires in order that honest and sincere answers could be obtained to every question.

The questionnaires were not designed solely to obtain subjective indications of attitudes. Some of the questions asked for factual information. It was hoped that the factual questions would (1) direct the respondent's thinking, (2) improve the reliability of responses.

Questionnaire I, which was signed, attempted to determine the student's:

1. Estimate of his academic success.
2. Estimate of his progress in the selection of his life work.
3. Estimate of his need for full career counseling.
4. Statement of the extent of his self-support.
5. Extent of participation in community and non-college activities.
6. Extent of participation in college activities.
7. Estimate of what he would have done if no local college center had been available for him to attend.

These are items that most students will discuss frankly with

⁴Racine Extension Center, University of Wisconsin. A transfer-type junior or community college, with non-credit and adult education programs. Only students in the college day program were concerned in this survey.

⁵Bogue, Jesse P. (Editor). *American Junior Colleges*, Second Edition. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948. 2.

advisers. Hence each student was asked to bring this questionnaire, filled out, to his adviser for a conference, but no attempt was made to require students to bring in this signed questionnaire.

Of 353 Q₁ questionnaires distributed, 264 were filled out and delivered to advisers.

Questionnaire II was to be filled out but not signed. This questionnaire attempted to discover:

1. The student's reasons for choosing to attend this college center.
2. The success of the student orientation program.
3. Student's estimate of adequacy of the counseling program.
4. The extent of student participation in the activity program.
5. The student's evaluation of the success of the student union.
6. The student's frank evaluation of things not liked at the college center.
7. The student's evaluation of things liked about the college center.

To provide an indication of the reliability of the two questionnaires, one question in Q₁ was repeated in Q₂. In this instance, it was found that the responses differed by 10 per cent on the paired items. Throughout both questionnaires ample opportunity was provided for students to give reasons for whatever responses they were making.

Questionnaire II, unsigned, was returned by 237 students. This is an unusually high rate of return for any anonymous questionnaire, indicating the serious purpose and high sincerity of student responses throughout. An analysis of all student responses shows that only two were made in a spirit of care-

lessness or indifference. There were no indications of sarcasm or lack of faith that the survey was anything but what it was intended to be—an honest effort to understand students and their problems better.

Summary of Responses Q₁ and Q₂ Combined

Reasons for Attending Racine Center. Student reasons for attending the Racine Center (see Table I) show an emphasis on financial considerations. This was to be expected. A chief reason for establishing the Center was to enable students without generous funds to continue their education while living at home. Although only the first reason given, "financial," directly cites finances as the reason, it will be noted that reasons I, II, and III (in order of frequency) are actually closely related. A "close to home" or "have a job here" reason has financial basis. Hence, reasons I, II and III, totalling 73 per cent of the responses, indicate the importance of finances to a large majority of the Racine students.

TABLE I. STUDENT REASONS FOR ATTENDING RACINE CENTER

- I 38 per cent—financial reasons
- II 25 per cent—financial reasons and other reasons ("close to home," "good reputation," "had job here")
- III 10 per cent—close to home
- IV 8 per cent—good faculty; personal help and closeness of instructors
- V 19 per cent—other reasons, numbering 19 in all

Helpfulness of Orientation Program. Each fall before the opening of the first semester of the

academic year, a week-long orientation and registration program is conducted. This program has been altered each year as experience has shown new ways of helping freshmen make an easier adjustment to college. As shown in Table II, this effort is helpful to the majority of students. An important part of this, and other questions, was the open-end appeal for specific suggestions for improvement of the orientation program.

TABLE II. STUDENT ESTIMATE OF HELPFULNESS OF FRESHMEN ORIENTATION IN MAKING ADJUSTMENT TO COLLEGE

- I 60 per cent—helped
- II 23 per cent—not helped
- III 17 per cent—no response

Students listed 43 specific suggestions for the improvement of the orientation program. These suggestions can be grouped as follows:

1. Do more to help students understand what is expected of them in college.
2. Use more and better booklets describing all aspects of college life.
3. Give specific instructions regarding academic requirements, grading system, etc.
4. Give specific information regarding the activity program ("make the clubs sound more appealing").
5. Develop school spirit.
6. Encourage friendliness.
7. Give help on improving study skills and techniques.

Adequacy of Counseling. The counseling program in operation at the Center provides each student with a faculty adviser who is also the student's instructor in the subject area the student has indicated as his likely major. There is also a full-time adviser to students who is a specialist in college counseling,

both academic and vocational. The administrative officers of the Center also spend a portion of their time in counseling. The "average" student with few difficulties will, under this system, confer a minimum of three times a semester with his adviser, and twice a semester with the adviser to students. Conferences, testing and other kinds of counseling are always available more often, at option of the student. The aim of counseling is to enable each student to perform at his optimum level in the college program. Table III shows that for 76 per cent of the students this system is effective. Again, the questionnaire provided the opportunity to indicate suggestions for improvement.

TABLE III. STUDENT ESTIMATE OF SUCCESS OR ADEQUACY OF COUNSELING PROGRAMS

- I 76 per cent—counseling effective
- II 24 per cent—counseling ineffective

Students satisfied with counseling pointed out that counseling was available when it was desired, but that the program might be even more effective if more frequent meetings with advisers were *required*. Students dissatisfied with counseling made a great many specific suggestions, such as:

1. Improve the system for bringing student and adviser together as *friends*.
2. Bring student and adviser together frequently so that adviser really *knows*, and has sympathy for, the problems of the student.
3. Provide advisers with more and better materials to work with (catalogues, etc.).

4. Require students to see advisers regularly.

Participation in Activity Program. The Center activity program consists of intramural athletics, competitive athletics, social dances, clubs, the Student Union, and other activities such as the student newspaper. A concert and lecture program is also provided. Activity-club rosters (not an accurate indication of participation) show participation by over 70 per cent of the students. Table IV shows the extent of activity participation according to responses for Q_1 (signed) and Q_2 (unsigned). Prestige factors would tend to drive up the affirmative responses to the signed questionnaire.

TABLE IV. EXTENT OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM

I 70 per cent—do participate (Q_1 , signed)

II 60 per cent—do participate (Q_2 , unsigned)

III 30 per cent—do not participate (Q_1 , signed)

IV 40 per cent—do not participate (Q_2 , unsigned)

(Signed questionnaire shows larger number (by 10 per cent) of students participating; unsigned questionnaire response is very likely closer to actual situation.)

Reasons given for participating:

1. Enjoyment
2. Importance to school life
3. Friendship
4. Development of leadership

Reasons given for not participating:

1. Lack of time
2. Employment outside of class hours
3. Studying
4. Lack of money

5. Poor health, lack of transportation, low grades
6. Lack of interest

Evaluation of Student Union.

A Student Union with recreational facilities and snack bar is owned and operated by the student body, under the supervision of the faculty. Each student pays a nominal sum each semester (\$1.00) for membership in the Union, which provides social and recreational opportunities. Table V shows that, for a majority of the students, the Union fulfills this function. The 10 per cent of students who ventured no opinion, and the 2 per cent who gave no response are probably students living out of town or carrying reduced programs, since these students usually do not belong to the Union. The specific suggestions for improvement of the Union have been particularly helpful to the Student Union Board. Table VI summarizes student use of the Union. Responses V and VI in Table VI correspond to responses III and IV in Table V.

TABLE V. STUDENT EVALUATION OF STUDENT UNION

I 78 per cent—Union is fulfilling its function

II 10 per cent—Union is not fulfilling its function

III 10 per cent—Do not know

IV 2 per cent—No response

TABLE VI. STUDENT USE OF STUDENT UNION

I 35 per cent—daily

II 18 per cent—occasionally

III 17 per cent—once or twice a week

IV 15 per cent—three to five times a week

V 12 per cent—never

VI 3 per cent—no response

About 30 specific suggestions were given for the improvement of the Union. In general, the suggestions favored:

1. Keeping the Union open nights and week-ends.
2. Developing a friendlier atmosphere and spirit.
3. Developing more recreational activities.
4. Scheduling more dances and dancing lessons.
5. Offering better lunch menus and lower prices.

Student Dislikes. In a survey of morale it is important to find out the dislikes of the group in order to determine future action. As shown in Table VII, 48 per cent of the students had no dislikes, or at least (in spite of the anonymity of the response) were not going to make their dislikes known. The 27 per cent who had dislikes listed them frankly. The 25 per cent who made no response to this question remain an enigma. It might be assumed that responses I and III could be grouped together since the meaning of each, though in doubt, is not negative.

TABLE VII. WHAT STUDENTS DON'T LIKE ABOUT THE CENTER

- I 48 per cent—dislike nothing about the Center
 II 27 per cent—dislikes (summarized below)
 III 25 per cent—no response

Student dislikes and suggestions are classified as follows:

1. Social program (dances, etc.) should be expanded.
2. Participation in all activities should be improved.
3. School interest should take the place of self interest.
4. School should be friendlier.

5. There should be more convocations.
6. There are too many convocations.
7. Lockers should be provided.
8. Athletic program should be expanded.
9. Not enough activities are scheduled.
10. Too many activities are scheduled.
11. There are too few men.
12. There are too few women.
13. Too much is expected of students.
14. Regular high school training does not prepare a person to do college work.
15. There should be more time given to teaching students how to study.

Student Likes. It is equally important to know what students like about their school. Whereas 27 per cent of the students had specific complaints, 63 per cent listed things appreciated. Thirty-seven per cent gave no response to this question—perhaps taken aback by the mere thought that there could be anything enjoyable about school. Table VIII summarizes these responses.

TABLE VIII. WHAT STUDENTS LIKE ABOUT THE CENTER

- I 63 per cent—like specific things (summarized below)
 II 37 per cent—no response
1. Freedom given to student.
 2. Large selection of courses.
 3. Free lecture series; concert series.
 4. Night class opportunities, which enable student to hold day job.
 5. Methods of teaching.
 6. Chance to start a college education at home.
 7. Getting a good education at a low cost.
 8. Student Union.
 9. Friendliness of instructors; personal attention given to problems.
 10. Counseling system.
 11. Good faculty, high quality instruction, cooperative attitude.
 12. Convocations.

13. Clubs, activities, athletics, intramurals.
14. Free student government.

Suggestions for improving the Center include:

1. Increase range of courses.
2. Give more frequent tests.
3. Attract more women.
4. Provide all-school calendar and bulletin boards.
5. Require more conferences with advisers.
6. Have more frequent dances in the union.
7. Help students find part-time employment.
8. Build up school spirit.
9. Improve school elections.
10. Improve school unity.
11. Have more convocations.

Self-estimate of Progress.

Morale is associated with interest and motive. It is thus significant to find out, if possible, the student's own estimate of his success in academic work. It is important, too, to find out the reasons students give for unsatisfactory progress. Table IX indicates the students' self-estimates of progress.

TABLE IX. STUDENT ESTIMATE OF SCHOLASTIC PROGRESS

- I 55 per cent—satisfied with progress being made
- II 45 per cent—dissatisfied (Note: about $\frac{1}{3}$ of students were actually in academic difficulties of some kind by end of semester.)

Reasons given for unsatisfactory progress consistently indicated self-blame:

1. Insufficient studying
2. Poor study habits
3. Inability to concentrate
4. Lack of interest in scholarship
5. Inability to keep up fast pace
6. Difficulty in remembering
7. Inability to recite, write exams, budget time
8. Carelessness or laziness.

Extent of Self-Support. To

know about the school and campus activities of students is not enough. In a school such as the Racine Center, offering opportunities to the student who does not have a large cash reserve, it would be expected that a large number work outside. The Adviser to Students aids in placement of students in part-time work, and keeps records on all students known to be working. But not all students use the facilities of the Center in finding work, and not all provide their advisers with complete employment information, perhaps fearing they will be urged to scale down an overly ambitious program of outside work, or required to carry a reduced academic program. Tables Xa and b show the extent of gainful employment as revealed by responses to this question.

TABLE Xa. EXTENT OF SELF-SUPPORT

- I 75 per cent—work outside of school
- II 25 per cent—no work outside of school

TABLE Xb. DEGREE OF SELF-SUPPORT

- I 15 per cent—entirely self-supporting
- II 12 per cent— $\frac{3}{4}$ self-supporting
- III 25 per cent— $\frac{1}{2}$ self-supporting
- IV 15 per cent— $\frac{1}{4}$ self-supporting
- V 8 per cent—less than $\frac{1}{4}$ self-supporting

Not only, though, do students work off campus; they also engage in social, civic, religious, and recreational activities off-campus. This is particularly true where students live at home and are in touch with friends and activities of long duration. Table XI shows the extent of student participation in off-campus activities.

TABLE XI. STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE THE CENTER

I 55 per cent—no activities outside Center

II 45 per cent—participation in activities outside Center

Activities engaged in outside of the Center are: church, athletics, music, Y.M.C.A., National Guard and Reserves, and fourteen other kinds of activities.

Interpretation of Student "Profile"

The student "profile" gives the college faculty a unique insight into the nature of the student body. An analysis of the profile leads to these generalizations:

1. Most students realize when they are performing satisfactorily or unsatisfactorily in the academic program. The percentage of students dissatisfied with academic progress compares favorably with actual records of the percentage of students in genuine academic difficulty at the end of the semester. (Students estimated their success approximately 10 weeks before the end of the semester; so their estimates on the questionnaire were not based upon grades, since no grades had been received.) A large number of students feel the need for additional training on how to study, improve reading, etc.
2. The students at the Center are extremely busy. Nearly half are active in community projects apart from the college center; 75 per cent work in addition to carrying their full college load; 60 per cent participate actively in the extra-curricular program of the college center. Reasons given by students for not participating more fully are overwhelmingly "lack of time." This response indicates that students must be taught to evaluate carefully what they are doing. Since they are busy, they must be taught to crowd their lives with only the most worthwhile and necessary activities. It may be that many are

busy only with the most ephemeral and inconsequential type of activity.

3. Money and finances are extremely important to students. Seventy-five per cent of the students must work in order to remain in college. It is evident that many of them save regularly to build up a fund to pay for the final years of their college education. Responses indicate that they have only limited funds for recreational purposes. It is important, therefore, that the college activity program emphasize inexpensive or free activities.
4. It appears that the counseling program has been adequate for most of the students, but that in all probability it is not used enough or early enough by those who are experiencing difficulty. It is evident, too, that a chief cause of dissatisfaction with counseling is that the instructors are not themselves broadly enough acquainted with the problems of young people.
5. In general, student morale is high but there are specific spots where improvement should take place.
6. References to the music, art, and literary activities connected with the Center were conspicuous by their absence. There were few who seemed to have positive feelings of any kind, for or against, the cultural program operated at the Center. This certainly shows that the program is largely ineffective as far as the students are concerned, and must be made more interesting and compelling before student interest can be aroused. It points to the growing indifference on the part of students to the great recorded experiences of human struggles, triumphs, and thoughts about life—whether in literature, music, art, philosophy, or some other branch.

In general, the students complimented the faculty and the institution, the counseling system, the friendly, cooperative attitude, and the high standards of instruction.

There were numerous comments made about teachers and teaching in general that offer some enlightenment to the administrator and faculty member. No specific question was aimed at eliciting student response regarding competency of instruction. Inclusion of such an item may have alienated a portion of the faculty who might have distrusted the use to which the questionnaire might be put. Nevertheless, a compilation of the spontaneous references made by students to instruction is extremely interesting. The positive and appreciative comments have been mentioned. On the negative side, students seemed to feel that it might be wise to give an orientation course to members of the faculty, too; that faculty members, in general, should give more information at the beginning of their courses about range, content, and procedure; that faculty members should give more quizzes so that the students have a better idea of their progress; that students appreciate the faculty member's maintaining regular office hours; that students appreciate and desire that all instructors be interested in the activity program of the school and attend at least some of the social functions; that students, by and large, feel that certain aspects of the adviser-advisee system should be more compulsory and less voluntary; that students feel that school authorities ought to give faculty members more information about the University and its various

branches so that they can handle questions with ease and confidence; that instructors sometimes have difficulty in seeing the student program as a whole; that instructors take too much for granted and could learn to improve the presentation of their course work; that instructors who use visual and auditory aids should know how to operate these devices; that instructors should avoid asking tricky questions in quizzes; that instructors should get down to the students' level in teaching.

Conclusion

The morale-type survey described has value when it is used (1) to augment the information on individuals and groups available from other sources, (2) to provide cues for institutional action.

Faculty and administration must press into use every device to improve their knowledge and understanding of students. This is not alone an excursion into the realities of the relations between teacher and taught; it is also a necessary part of any effort to adapt instruction to needs, to locate areas of high and low morale, to learn to exploit interest as an important factor affecting aptitude, to provide release of tension for those with real or fancied dissatisfactions, to identify the practices, features and factors that improve rapport, and to make clear by positive action that students as well as faculty have a voice in identifying situations in need of change. It is essential, of course, that the re-

sponses of the group actually be used to effect change. If the recommendations of the group are ignored, morale will plummet. The aid of student groups is helpful in making changes.

As a result of this survey (coupled with information from other sources) changes have been made at the Racine Center in almost every area covered by the two questionnaires.

The Racine Center faculty and administration plan to repeat an improved morale survey about every third year. Since the Center has a two-year college curriculum, each third year a completely new student body will be enrolled. Results obtained by surveying one group cannot be expected to be valid for another, and repeating the survey no oftener than each

three years will preserve the element of novelty for each group surveyed. Repetition of the survey too soon would call up recollections of the previous experience and color responses.

The survey was a planned part of the all-school counseling program. The ground work for the survey was laid in the first all-school convocation and in adviser-advisee conferences, though students were not told of the survey to be made.

The survey has limitations because it was not validated by try-out. However, the experience gained in experimenting with this survey and studying survey techniques and questionnaire construction should improve the quality, validity, reliability, and usefulness of the next survey attempted.

Junior College Prospects and A Guide For Its Legal Propagation

RAYMOND J. YOUNG

THE numerous investigations and volume of literature which have greatly enhanced the establishment and development of the American public junior college attest to the increasing importance of providing education to persons beyond the high school. The findings of such studies as the Regents' Inquiry in New York, the Maryland Youth Survey and others have consistently yielded evidence of the importance of studying secondary education for youth, particularly the eighteen to twenty-one and adult-age groups. The President's Commission on Higher Education has recognized and recently emphasized the need for the extension of secondary education through the thirteenth and fourteenth years of school. Numerous and less objective expressions of opinions on extended public secondary education through the fourteenth year appear with increasing frequency in lay as well as professional journals.

Signs of the Time

The problems of secondary education at the junior college level can best be understood when viewed in their true perspective with respect to the long range trends in society which tend to mold the course of educational institutions. A thorough analysis of many sociological and technological changes affecting American

public education that have occurred within the recent past century reveals many of the basic causes underlying problems that exist today. From a careful analysis of long range trends relating to the progress of technology and its effect upon employment, the advancement of skill, and the productivity of labor, trends regarding the decline of agriculture, changing work patterns, the concentration of job opportunity and significant changes in the labor force, it appears that youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty years of age, today and in the future, will probably face an increasingly difficult task of entering the productive labor market of gainfully employed persons. This prospect is further supported by the analysis of additional long range trends of such other factors as population and growth trends in the United States and the changing age composition of the population, child labor and compulsory educational legislation and restrictions, minimum wage restrictions, trends of practice in employer controlled employment, collective bargaining and control over hiring, and trends in older youth school enrollments.

If there is to be full employment in the absence of a national emergency, youth must be prepared to move both vertically and horizontally within the various occupa-

tional groups. It is likely that extended education beyond the twelfth year of school will become more important in absorbing unoccupied youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one and in providing them with many of the experiences, skills, and abilities necessary for vertical and horizontal mobility in the work world. Trends regarding the number of youth under twenty-one years of age attending school would seem to indicate that in the future, there will be an increased attendance, in proportion of pupils of that age group, in school beyond the twelfth year. Educators, who in the past have hesitated to develop anything more than a mildly hostile attitude toward the public junior college, point today with warning to the failure of the public high school to regain its composure and recoup its wartime losses in any noticeable numbers since the hostilities ceased. Such failure, they claim, is justification for eliminating further attention to public junior college expansion. Much failure of the public high school to regain its enrollment is attributable to losses in wartime military and industrial service, falling birth rates during the depression and a third factor which chronic opposition to the public junior college prefers to omit. Poor instruction, an antiquated curriculum and, in general, a failure of the high school to meet the real needs of youth in a practical, realistic way are included in the third factor. A true junior

college program reflecting the civic and occupational life of the community rather than the academic and scholastic life of the college classroom can avoid bogging down in the sloughs of scholasticism and formalism that have prevented the traditional high school from properly functioning to provide a practical realistic program of education to meet the needs of youth. The commendable practice, sanctioned by legal authority, of not restricting the public junior college enrollment to high school graduates has been ignored in some areas of the United States. Such practice threatens to offset the criticism leveled at the junior college—that since our educational system is built on a one-track system, it is foolish to discuss further expansion of an institution most of the population would attend until the high school demonstrates its ability to build a program for all youth of high school age. Thus, failure of the high school to entirely recoup during the present abnormal times since the cessation of World War II may only evidence a greater rather than a lesser need for future expansion of secondary education.

The public junior college, supported wholly or in part by public taxation, propagated by appropriate and desirable legal provisions, and located in widely scattered areas is a partial answer to the problem of youth unemployment and a means of meeting youth needs prior to their induction into

the productive labor market or military service. The signs of the times point unerringly toward a greater need for attention to the junior colleges as an extension of secondary education and its promise for aiding in the solution of social and educational problems of the greatest magnitude.

The Awkward Age

That the public junior college has passed its infancy and childhood periods of growth and is well along in an adolescent stage of development is attested by a cursory examination of the facts relating to its rapid growth and acceptance by both lay and professional groups in the United States. Although it is of rather recent origin, the public junior college has had a phenomenal growth since its inception, and today, in number and enrollment far surpasses that of the private junior colleges. The present crisis and impending national emergency will no doubt have a profound effect upon enrollment in the immediate future as it will for all institutions whose students are drawn from the age group of eighteen and above. Viewed in its perspective, however, an analysis of enrollment and growth reveals no trend toward a decline of the public junior college but rather increased expansion and extension heretofore unknown.

Need for Attention to Legal Aspects

The entrenchment and development of the public junior college

as a member of the educational family during the two decades preceding 1951 has followed no systematic pattern. Each state has met or failed to meet the demands of its respective need for public junior colleges through various types of local enactment. For the academic year 1949-50, thirty of the thirty-nine states which had public junior colleges within their boundaries were controlled and maintained in political subdivisions within the state. Of the thirty states having public junior colleges controlled and maintained in districts or counties or combinations of districts or counties, twenty-six states had some general legislative provision pertaining to such an institution, and the remaining four did not. Some of the twenty-six states had but few provisions concerning the institution, and others have many. The apparent haphazard development of legislation has seen each section of the United States groping its way in general legislative enactment to provide for the public junior college.

Because the above-mentioned condition exists, it seems desirable to capitalize upon the accumulated experience of the past several decades to take an accounting and ascertain the value or desirability of public junior college general legislation on a nation-wide basis. Such information should enable educators and statesmen to know, in general, what progress has been made in each of the several states

and to give direction and continuity to future courses of action in states contemplating the enactment of general legislation for the establishment, operation, and maintenance of the public junior college.

To stimulate further action where its need may become evident, it is essential to know the extent to which present general legislative provisions meet desirable criteria as indicated by persons intimately familiar with the needs and problems peculiar to the institution.

It is not held that the statutory provisions in all states should be exactly the same, for the contrary is true. It is felt that there are types of general legislative enactment which could be determined to the establishment, growth, and development of the public junior college regardless of the locality with its differing needs and conditions. Likewise, it is held that some types of general legislative provisions are more conducive to the establishment, growth, and development of those institutions than other types, regardless of the locale.

General legislation pertaining to public junior colleges has been recently assembled for each of the several states and recommendations for future enactments made. Recommendations, generally, have been made on the basis of personal subjective judgment or the consensus of a few writers whose works appeared during an earlier period in which the public junior

college movement appeared to be in its infancy.

Inasmuch as a need is likely to become more acute in American society which may in part be fulfilled by the proper functions of the public junior college, and if it is to be assumed that the trends in their increase to meet those needs will continue, one cannot deny the probable but perhaps decelerated rate of future establishment, growth, and development of this unique educational unit in many areas of the United States. Because no investigation had been conducted to ascertain the value or desirability of the various existing items of general legislation pertaining to the public junior college, since a future development of those educational units is anticipated, and to provide a valid basis for future recommendations, it was held to be likely that an investigation of such a nature would aid in helping make future action possible on a planned, practical, and concerted basis. Contributions of such an investigation will help also to add unity to the development of the public junior college in eliminating the necessity for continued haphazard groping when legislative enactments are being formulated. To meet this imperative need, the Research Division of the American Association of Junior Colleges cooperating with the writer and aided by the many state departments of education, educational leaders and administrators of public junior colleges have at-

tempted to provide some vital information which will serve as a guide for the future.

*Problem and Plan of the
Recent Investigation*

The major problem of investigation was to analyze and to evaluate or ascertain the desirability of general legislative provisions pertaining to the public junior colleges in the Union according to the consensus of public junior college administrators and educational experts. The evaluation was based upon opinions of persons engaged as public junior college administrators excluding, however, the administrators of state operated and established institutions known as public junior colleges. As state controlled, operated and established institutions are either a branch of a state university or college of higher learning or established by special legislative enactment, general legislation with which the investigation was concerned did not apply to the administrators of those institutions.

A careful examination was made of the statutes and school laws of each state in the United States to ascertain what provisions of general legislation exist pertaining to public junior colleges. These provisions were classified into major categories or phases, namely: requirements for establishment; procedure for formation of a junior college; district formation; instruction specifying technical points in forming a junior college district or establishing a junior college

(elections and petitions); building and equipment; faculty; supervision, government and control; inspection and accreditation; admission and graduation; finance (state aid, county and district tax, tuition and fees, transportation, and miscellaneous finance); curriculum; and organization and discontinuance. The general legislative provisions, classified under the several categories, were presented in a printed questionnaire form to all public junior college administrators and to a jury of selected educational experts. Each respondent was asked to rate each item of legislation in terms of its desirability as a legislative enactment concerning public junior colleges according to one of five descriptive phrases—"necessary or essential," "important but not essential," "contributes little," "of no value," and "detrimental."

A numerical value, derived and modified from a weighted rating scale recommended by the respondents to the study, was assigned each descriptive phrase. A mean weighted rating concerning each item on the questionnaire was obtained for administrators and for educational experts participating. For purposes of evaluation, each state's school laws were again analyzed for items of general legislation pertaining to public junior colleges, and each item was given a rating corresponding to the mean evaluation obtained for administrators and for experts for such an item. Mean evaluations in

terms of the criteria evaluated by administrators and experts were obtained for each state's *total* number of general legislative provisions with which the study was concerned and also for items of legislation in *each area or phase* of legislation mentioned previously. The latter information enables educators and legislators in a given state to ascertain which phase or area of general legislation is good and which is lacking in desirable provisions.

A comparison of the mean evaluation for each state's general legislative provisions included in the investigation indicates the relative value of existing general legislative provisions according to the opinions of responding administrators and experts. A comparison of the mean evaluation of each state's general legislative provisions pertaining to each phase, area, or category of legislation will reveal the relative value of legislation in the state for a particular area (e.g., curriculum, faculty, etc.). *An examination of the criteria evaluated by the administrators and experts enables educators and legislators to ascertain the desirability of including various items of general legislation pertaining to public junior colleges.*

General agreement is evidenced between the groups of over sixty-five per cent of the public junior college administrators and eighty per cent of the educational experts concerning items that are thought to be "important or essential" and

"important but not essential." Every state with a public junior college controlled and maintained by a political subdivision of the state was represented, thus experience of administrators in all such sections of the United States was drawn upon.

Some Significant Observations

Limitations of space and the detailed nature of the analysis and evaluation of general legislative provisions for each state render it impracticable to include them here in their entirety. Several of the more significant observations are presented.

General Observations

Items of general legislation pertaining to the public junior college should provide for flexibility rather than rigidity and inflexibility. Standardization should be generally kept to a minimum. The college should retain local autonomy within the framework of flexible and desirable legal and semi-legal standards and requirements which have been formulated on the basis of research and educational surveys conducted by *qualified and competent educators*. More states have given legal attention to formation of districts and establishment than other areas of legislation. Much needs to be done by many states in each of the other areas of legislation as well as this one in order to provide adequately for the future welfare of the public junior college.

Procedure and Technical Points in the Formation of a Junior College or Junior College District

1. A state survey of the educational need, financial ability, facilities, and prospective attendance should be required subsequent to a proposal to establish a public junior college, and state department approval should precede its establishment.

2. The proposition of forming a public junior college should be submitted to the voters residing in areas included in the proposed junior college district or district proposing a junior college.

3. Legislation should be specific concerning the manner by which action to establish a public junior college is to be initiated, elections and petitions. The manner of electing, term of office, number of members, and method of filling vacancies should be specified if an independent junior college board is created to govern a junior college.

4. If action to establish a public junior college is initiated by a petition, the law should require the number of signers to be a specified per cent of the electors of the district or districts proposing to establish it.

5. If action to establish a public junior college is initiated by a petition, a legal provision stipulating that the required number of signers should be a definite number (indicated by a figure) or specifying it may be either a specified figure or per cent of the qualified electors is not thought to be good.

6. Legislation providing for district formation should provide for much flexibility and enable two or more districts or counties or portions thereof to cooperate for public junior college purposes.

Requirements for Establishment and Organization

1. For a given state, there should be a minimum district valuation, district or town population, or prospective junior college enrollment, required by law on the basis of local study and research, or the authority for determining requirements for the establishment may be assigned by legal action to the state

superintendent of public instruction and/or the state board of education. Administrators in this study tended to favor the former. The manner by which this is done will depend on local conditions within a state, however.

2. A stipulation preventing a public junior college from being established within a specified distance of a four-year college is worth little and may be detrimental.

3. The governing board of any high school district authorized to establish a junior college should be enabled to maintain it as a separate institution or in conjunction with the high school.

Discontinuance

Provision should be made in the law for the discontinuance of a junior college if such action is desired, and legislation should be specific concerning the manner of disposing of property should a public junior college district be dissolved. If a need develops and certain conditions are met, the board should be authorized to re-establish the junior college.

Supervision, Government and Control.

1. Public junior colleges should be legally a part of the public school system, and the state department of education should exercise the same general supervision and inspection over them as it does over the other units of the public school system.

2. The law should state the method by which the junior college will be governed and provide for the governing board, granting it wide powers and duties.

3. Governmental control of the public junior college must be vested in a local board. Such control should not be given to a state agency or unduly influenced by the state indirectly through a committee established by a state agency or an advisory board of local members appointed by a state authority.

4. A public junior college authorized or taken over in any type of high school, school district or county should be governed by the governing board of the high school, school district or county, and a provision which creates

an independent board for that purpose is of little or no value.

5. A local district school board governing a coterminous junior college district should have the same powers and duties for the junior college as for the high school, and it should administer and exercise general supervision over the junior college through the superintendent and/or principal under the jurisdiction of the state superintendent or state board of education.

6. Junior colleges in a union, unified, joint union, joint unified district or county should be governed by an independent board selected for that purpose, and it should have the same powers as the governing boards of the districts, or portions thereof, merged for junior college purposes. A provision providing that such a junior college should be governed by the existing boards of each area concerned is of little or no value.

7. A legislative provision which would relegate *exclusive* power to a local board of education to provide the control, supervision, rules, regulations, and standards concerning the junior college or setting the minimum number or minimum qualifications for junior college teachers is not good and may be detrimental.

8. The state superintendent or state board of education should establish rules, regulations, and standards governing the operation and maintenance of any district maintaining grades 13 and 14 rather than having minimum requirements stated by law.

Curriculum

1. Legislative provision should enable the establishment of a four-year or a two-year junior college, whichever is deemed best.

2. Legislation concerning the public junior college curriculum should be very general and provide that the course of study should be designed to meet the needs of the pupils in the 13th and 14th years of school and in addition may provide instruction which will prepare for admission to the upper division of a higher institution of learning.

3. Provisions specifying course offerings, requirements providing all courses be of college grade or the first

and second years of an accredited four-year college are of little or no value and may be detrimental if included in legislations.

4. A provision defining a credit hour or specifying that additional branches beyond the high school should be determined by the voters at an election are of little or no value.

5. Authority for prescribing the course of study should be assigned by law to the governing board of the junior college and not to the state board and/or state superintendent of public instruction.

6. All institutions of higher learning in the state supported in whole or in part by the state should be *authorized* but *not required* by law to accept grades and credits earned in a legally authorized and established junior college within the same state.

Admission and Graduation

1. A student who completes a two-year course of study in a junior college and complies with requirements of the state superintendent of public instruction should be granted the same privileges as are granted to any person completing two years in any institution of higher learning in the state. Graduation requirements should not be stated by law.

2. Authority for determining admission requirements for students attending the public junior college should be assigned by law to the governing board of the junior college. Legal provisions should not prevent the board from admitting high school non-graduates to the junior college.

3. Some type of evidence for work done in a public junior college should be given upon completion of a course of study there.

Faculty

Junior college teachers should be certified by the state and included in the state retirement plan for teachers.

Building and Equipment

Legislative enactments prescribing standards for libraries, laboratories, buildings, and academic qualifications for public junior college teachers are not desirable for inclusion in general legislation pertaining to public junior colleges.

Finance

1. Provisions should be made for public junior colleges to receive state aid, and a stipulation should exist in the law concerning standards and conditions to be met before receiving such state aid.

2. Any stipulation preventing a public junior college from receiving state aid is detrimental, and a stipulation preventing any part of state moneys or funds from being used for construction or repair of buildings or purchase of grounds and equipment is of little or no value and may be detrimental.

3. Provision should enable any district or county authorized to establish a public junior college to include an amount necessary for the support of such a college in its annual budget.

4. The law should designate what annual reports and/or audits should be made and to whom they are made. A uniform system of cost accounting for all junior colleges within a state is desirable.

5. Tuition costs should be kept to a minimum for students by legislative provisions authorizing and enabling districts to pay the cost of tuition in that district or in another district within the same state.

6. Legislative enactments authorizing or requiring tuition are not thought by respondents of this study to be desirable or worth very much. Such provisions may be detrimental.

7. Students attending a public junior college should be transported to the school free, but a provision authorizing the school board in any district to pay for the board and room of students attending a junior college in another district when it is not feasible to transport them is thought to be of little value.

8. The governing board of a junior college should be authorized to levy a sinking fund for long range financial programs, issue refunding bonds, revenue or other bonds, insure school buildings and equipment, use any existing buildings or equipment or to pro-

vide necessary buildings and equipment, and to accept grants of funds or equipment made available by the United States government to them. They should be authorized also to accept gifts, donations, and bequests.

Timely Recommendations

Educators and legislators intent on providing for youth of the future may well profit by re-examining the general legislative provisions of their state in the light of this investigation¹ to ascertain if certain items now contained in the statutes might not actually be detrimental or worth little to the continued progress of the public junior college. Such an examination will reveal also the areas or phases of legislation where desirable legal provisions are totally lacking. The present investigation aids by citing for each individual state where additional enactment may be helpful, and it will serve as a guide for further enactment of provisions found lacking. States with a total lack of general legislative provisions pertaining to the public junior college may well profit by using this guide also.

Educators or legislators who refer to the present investigation as a guide for enactment of general legislation pertaining to the public junior college should carefully examine those items which have been rated as "necessary or essential" and "important but not essential" by the many cooperative persons participating in the investigation. Items should be chosen which best fit the local situation and conditions within an individual state.

¹Young, R. J., "An Analysis and Evaluation of General Legislation Pertaining to Public Junior Colleges," Unpublished doctor's thesis, The University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, 1950. 547 pp.

The Availability and Utilization of Specific Audio-Visual Aids in the Business Departments Of Selected Junior Colleges

ALICE L. SADLER

TO ascertain the availability and utilization of specific audio-visual aids in the teaching of business education subjects in junior colleges, a questionnaire was sent to all (386) two-year junior colleges listed in the 1948 edition of *American Junior Colleges* in which specific business education subjects were listed under the heading, "Fields of Instruction." Of the 233 questionnaires returned, 195 were usable.

The 195 junior colleges were widely distributed over the United States. To facilitate in the interpretation of the data, four geographical regions were used: Eastern, North Central, Southern, and Western. One hundred and twenty-one of the colleges that returned usable questionnaires were public coeducational institutions, and 74 were private. The majority of the private institutions were coeducational except in the eastern states where women's colleges predominated. Enrollments in the colleges ranged from less than 100 to over 10,000 with over 75 per cent of the colleges having less than 600 students.

Thirty-four of the 195 junior colleges indicated that audio-visual aids were not used. It was concluded that these schools were not considering audio-visual aids to education in their entirety and that

some use, though limited, was made of aids constructed by teachers or students.

Sound and projection equipment was available in 160 of the 195 junior colleges, though only a few types of equipment were available in the majority of colleges. The geographical regions in order of the percentage of total junior colleges which indicated available equipment were as follows: Western, North Central, Eastern, and Southern. Of the 12 most common types of audio-visual equipment, the three most popular on the basis of availability were the sound projector, record player, and slide projector. The sound projector was available in the highest percentage (71.2 per cent) of the 195 junior colleges.

The utilization of available audio-visual equipment was extremely low. The public junior colleges used audio-visual equipment in the teaching of business subjects (shorthand, salesmanship, secretarial practice, typewriting) more extensively than did the private colleges.

Exhibits, three-dimensional displays which communicate certain ideas and information, were used in a small percentage of the junior colleges. In approximately 35 per cent of the schools, exhibits were made by teachers, and in the

majority of the colleges, they were exhibited within the buildings housing the junior colleges.

Graphic materials were not widely used in the business education departments because teachers were not familiar with sources of free posters, charts, and graphs.

The most popular means of duplicating materials for instructional purposes were the mimeograph and ditto.

Of the 195 junior colleges studied, 39.4 per cent employed part-time directors of programs of audio-visual aids and 3.6 per cent had full-time directors. As a result of the small number of junior colleges that had directors of audio-visual programs and considering the nature of the use of audio-visual aids in business courses in junior colleges, it may be concluded that there is a general need for better organization and more efficient direction of audio-visual aids programs in junior colleges as a whole.

A few junior college business education teachers were capable of operating sound motion picture projectors and an even smaller number had received formal training in audio-visual aids to education. From these facts it is evident that teachers of business education subjects in junior colleges are inadequately prepared to utilize effectively audio-visual aids in the teaching of their classes. Furthermore, as a group they do not have the background of experience or training desirable for the

organization and administration of an audio-visual program of education for their colleges.

Sound motion picture projectors were operated by the teachers in more than one-half of the junior colleges and by students in more than 45 per cent of the colleges.

Films were shown in the classrooms as a part of the instructional period in the majority of public junior colleges; however, this practice, which is considered highly desirable by authorities in the use of audio-visual aids in teaching, was followed in less than one-third of the private junior colleges.

Students who are enrolled in courses other than business education were combined with students in business education courses to view films intended primarily for business education students in more than 90 per cent of the junior colleges. This practice indicates that the maximum educational benefits are not being derived from the use of films in instruction in business education subjects. It is impossible to "condition" the students for the film by discussion and to "follow up" with a planned discussion to clinch the essential points when students who are not enrolled for the business course are permitted to view the film for entertainment purposes.

Teachers in junior colleges need training in the selection and proper use of audio-visual aides—specialty films in the teaching of business subjects. This statement is based upon the fact that teachers in jun-

ior colleges expressed little interest and displayed very limited knowledge of audio-visual aids. Considering the fact that teachers know little about audio-visual aids, it is not surprising that they make limited use of them in teaching. The unavailability of equipment, especially in the private junior colleges, also is a contributing factor to the negligible use made of films in the teaching of business education subjects.

Annual appropriations for film rental and purchase are available in the majority of junior colleges in all except the southern states. However, the purchase price of films was considered so great as to make the purchase of films practically prohibitive in the majority of the junior colleges.

While the majority of films used in junior college business education classes were obtained from university and state libraries, junior colleges also obtained films from commercial distributors, manufacturing firms, and publishing houses. The principal objection to the services rendered by the distributors of educational films was the booking of the films. Many colleges experienced difficulty in obtaining the rental films in sufficient time to permit previewing before using the films for teaching purposes.

In considering the factors that would improve the audio-visual aids as supplements to teaching in the business subjects, the junior college personnel strongly recommended the production of more

sound motion pictures. It was urged that high quality educational films should be produced for each of the business subjects and that these films should be especially written and produced for the junior college level of instruction. The fact that more and better sound films was the audio-visual aid recommended by the majority of junior college personnel may reflect a lack of understanding of the many uses and adaptability of other audio-visual aids in the teaching of business subjects.

Junior college personnel as a whole tend to consider audio-visual aids primarily in terms of films. As a result, junior colleges are deriving little of the educational benefits from film strips, slides, exhibits, recording machines, and graphic devices that can be used very effectively.

Recommendations based upon the findings of this study are:

1. Collectively both administrators and instructors in junior colleges seem to be very limited in their understanding of the principles of selection and proper use of audio-visual aids in the teaching of business subjects. Therefore, means should be provided for acquainting present junior college personnel with the various types of audio-visual equipment and the possible uses of such equipment and devices as supplementary aids.
2. Provision should be made in business teacher education programs, in which prospective jun-

ior college instructors may be trained for thorough understanding of and skill in the selection, proper use, and development of audio-visual aids to supplement instruction in business education subjects. Whether such training should be provided through intensive courses in audio-visual aids to education as now are available in some colleges or whether the training would be more effective if integrated in the business education content and methods courses is a question still unanswered.

3. In order to stimulate and extend the use of all kinds of audio-visual aids in addition to sound films, annual budgets should provide for the purchase of other types of equipment and developmental materials which would enable instructors to prepare film strips, slides, duplicated instructional aids, exhibits, and graphic displays.

4. Audio-visual aids, especially films, film strips, slides, exhibits,

and graphic displays for use in supplementary instruction in the business subjects should be prepared to meet more specifically the maturity level, interests, and experience of junior college students. This recommendation is based upon the implied points of view of the teachers that available films are frequently designed for audiences of such wide range as to curtail their usefulness for specific groups such as junior college students.

5. Competent teachers of business subjects in junior colleges should be invited to work cooperatively with experts in the production of audio-visual materials. The cooperation of these two groups should result in the production of audio-visual aids on suitable topics and concepts in business education. Distributors and rental agencies should improve their practices in booking films by permitting ample time for previewing films before they are used in teaching.

A Suggested Student Personnel Philosophy for the Junior College

LOUIS A. RICE

THE principal reason for the existence of the junior college today lies in what it can do for the individual student. Although development of the individual is supposedly the goal of all levels of education, at no other point must the objective be so completely justified as in this institution covering the thirteenth and fourteenth years, the crucial years in the life of adolescents.

The growth of secondary schools has produced mass education to a degree that the individual is often buried in it. Vocational schools are built upon technical training, and the student succeeds or fails largely in terms of his technical skill. In colleges, where selectivity has been greatest, erudition is the measure of success for some, athletic prowess for others, while the great middle group meanders through a mass of more or less specialized courses groping for basic principles upon which to build success in later life. The outstanding sin of the colleges has been their high mortality in the freshman and sophomore years among students who met their entrance requirements but who for reasons unknown, or unrealized, or known but not cared for, did not attain a sufficient degree of success to be permitted to remain. This has resulted in enormous waste in human assets.

If the world is to grow appreciably better we must take young people as we find them and do as much as we can to help them improve their status. Through many decades of educational error, higher education was arranged for the gifted few, supplemented always by a group not necessarily so gifted but whose economic affluence bought them the privilege. The masses received lesser treatment and were bounced out of the common schools on the slightest provocation. Civic and business leadership, however, came from one group as often as from the other. Many of the "educated" not only failed to achieve leadership but contributed little to the solution of public problems of their day because of their lack of understanding of human nature and how to influence it.

In education there are always stock alibis for the failure of those who do not seem to profit by instruction. The college system blames the secondary schools for lack of scholarship; the secondary system blames the elementary schools for failure to develop the rudimentary tools of learning; the elementary system takes the view if home conditions were better, so would be the crop of beginners. In the home, parents stand indicted

as the genesis of all educational problems and can only suggest—if they bother to think about it at all—that if the schools or colleges of their day had done a little better job on them, a lot of difficulty would have been avoided.

The junior college emerges from the educational morass as a school which does not, perhaps, expect too much of its students when they enter but a great deal more before they graduate. Its admission requirements are based largely on the indicated ability of the student to achieve something in one of its varied programs. As it is necessary to have some degree of homogeneity in classes, entrance requirements usually take the form of high school graduation or the equivalent as measured by some test of intelligence. Specific requirements are found mostly in junior colleges offering traditional academic programs designed primarily for transfer to the senior colleges.

The student personnel of the junior college may include graduates of the academic programs, the commercial programs, and the general programs of the public high schools; graduates of the vocational schools; products of select preparatory schools and finishing schools; dropouts from the colleges; together with some older adults who have been out of high school for some time but have just come to realize the value of further education. With this diverse group, the only safe basis of education is one

that will study the desires and capabilities of each individual and assist him in the development of his potentialities to the greatest possible extent.

Self-Realization

Coming from so many different sources, matriculants of the junior colleges have been subjected to a great variety of school experiences in the past. Most of these, however, have not been such as to put any great burden upon the initiative or to appeal to the maturity of the individual. Those coming from the large high schools have been lost in the crowd, with little individual recognition. Some few have begun to regard themselves as individuals and to understand some of their own strengths and weaknesses, as well as to account for them, but for the great majority, this experience is still ahead of them.

Early in his junior college experience, the student must begin to analyze himself. He must see how he is similar to and different from others. He must know his own capabilities with regard to mentality and should understand that he will be expected to work somewhere near the level of which he is capable. He must begin to learn the application of certain basic psychological principles which will affect his work, such as habit formation and change, influence of the emotions, and the strength of will-power. He must begin to realize some of his weaknesses or handicaps and work out a definite plan

for overcoming them; and, moreover, he must start the process without further delay. Whether he came to the junior college voluntarily or was sent by parents, he must realize why he is there, what is expected of him, and what powers he can expect to acquire during his two-year stay. If a vocational objective or an objective of further study beyond junior college can be developed in the first semester as a personal aim, it will help focalize one's study even though his objective may be changed at a later date. There is a distinct advantage, however, in working toward something very definite.

One of the most important aspects of self-realization is that the student become aware that his education is a process of growth which he himself must achieve. Faculty members, of course, will assist. They will guide and direct, supply readings and problems, explain knotty points, measure progress, but the real educational process is a matter of development from within and cannot be injected hypodermically or slapped on externally like a plaster. One of the happiest steps in the process may be the realization by the individual that he has the mental equipment and the good habits of a real student.

Self-Direction

As soon as the process of self-realization is under way—and it may, and in many cases should, continue throughout the two years—the student is able to assume a

measure of self-direction. If he regards himself as an individual adult, he will begin to see that he must accept adult responsibilities for himself. He will learn to budget his time, and to improve his study habits. He will begin to regard assignments as means of gaining competency rather than as mere tasks to be performed with the least possible effort. He will start thinking how he may work toward his vocational objective and will take greater interest in those courses and experiences which specifically contribute to that end. Attendance and punctuality become part of his responsibilities. A fair measure of independent study of field survey will sometimes be done on a volunteer basis. In short, the sooner the individual begins to take responsibility for himself, the greater will be his progress and the greater the pride which he will attain in his own work.

Self-Control

It has been said that if a horse knew his own strength, no man would ever be able to control him. Self-realization in the individual, especially if it comes suddenly, sometimes leads to a type of behavior which is neither desirable nor beneficial to him or to others. Likewise, self-direction may proceed along a path which is ruggedly individualistic or even anti-social. Maturity, however, brings with it a certain amount of judgment to which the instructor or the counselor may appeal through the processes of reason.

Many people feel that the youth of junior college age act on impulse entirely, without regard to reason. It is more likely, however, that much behavior of this sort is based on reasons which are definite even though quite illogical or twisted. If the astute counselor can gain the confidence of the student and learn the real reason behind what seems to be a perfectly irrational action, the line of reasoning may be straightened out and the individual helped in making an adjustment which will prevent a repetition of the same error, though not necessarily of other errors of reasoning.

Self-control means not only applying will power as a restraint in behavior situations but also marshalling the forces of will to aid in the process of self-direction which is necessary for the accomplishment of the student's hopes and ambitions. It includes also cooperation, tolerance, poise, restraint, presence of mind, firmness without conflict, respect for others.

Personal Power

The steps previously described combine to effect self-improvement and self-confidence. Every alert junior college knows that its lectures, reading assignments, labora-

tory problems, and other curricular activities contribute only in part to the success of the graduate in after life. They provide the individual student with factual information, train him in problem solving, give him an insight into the social and political philosophies of the times, develop some skills, and stretch his imagination and his thinking somewhat. But other factors play a considerable part in happy and successful living, among which are setting goals for one's self, maintaining a high moral code, recognizing opportunities for service, working and sacrificing in order to attain one's ambition, and believing in one's self.

It is the function of the junior college to develop power in the individual student by giving him a clear picture of his natural endowment and by showing him how to use that endowment to build good study and work habits, to gain emotional control, to use his will power for his own improvement, and to shape a guiding philosophy of social and moral principles to carry out into the world.

It can be done by bringing out the best in each student—with his conscious cooperation and effort.

The Junior College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

York Junior College. York, Pennsylvania, has completed its annual survey of high school students in York County. For 1951, there are 1,475 seniors enrolled in the nineteen high schools in the county. Enrollment data embrace a span of three years from 1949-1951 with a breakdown of boys, girls and totals in each high school and grand totals for the county. While the 1950 survey showed sixty-nine students as graduating in the classical course of study, none are so listed in 1951.

If given an opportunity, 301 seniors indicate that they would continue study toward a degree in a senior college or university; 427 other students indicate an interest in shorter courses of further study; 125 students are interested in entering York Junior College this coming fall. Seniors interested in degree programs in 1949 represented twenty-four per cent of the students, while in 1951 this percentage dropped to twenty-one per cent. Those interested in shorter programs in 1949 were forty per cent of the classes, but in 1951 they dropped to thirty per cent.

Interesting data has been collected with respect to financial needs of students. For example, eighty-nine boys state that they will need \$77,000 and fifty-five girls will need \$41,365 for their freshman year in college. Going

back across the years, the survey shows that many more students express a desire to go to college than the number who actually go. Economic factors probably played an important role in the final decisions. One result of the studies is the expansion of the semi-professional curriculums at York, designed to meet the needs of from one-third to one-half of the 1,475 graduating high school students. The president of York is Lester F. Johnson.

New Agriculture Program. Paris Junior College, Paris, Texas, has completed a survey, covering a fifty-mile radius with respect to the agricultural interests of the people. The survey shows that soil, rainfall and the character of the people are all favorable for the kind of program which will make this community one of small farms, owned and operated largely by graduates of the Paris Junior College. As a result of these findings, a new program is being established to provide practical agricultural instruction, demonstration and farm laboratory work for the men and women who will live and work in the Paris community.

The survey was made under the direction of the Paris Junior College and ten practical farmers. Its purpose was to (1) determine what the agricultural status of Lamar County should be ten years

hence both economically and culturally; (2) determine how Paris Junior College should contribute toward this development; (3) outline a suggested program for Paris Junior College to follow in helping to reach that goal. Interested citizens have underwritten the program for an initial outlay of \$50,000. Details of financing have been worked out for a five-year program. (Note: The Executive Secretary has requested the administration of Paris Junior College to write an article for the *Junior College Journal*. The development at Paris appears to be of such significance as to be explained in considerable detail for *Journal* readers.)

Student Enlistments in various branches of the armed forces were at a peak between December 23, 1950, and January 15, 1951, according to reports in student publications from various parts of the country. Following the new regulations announced by Selective Service which permit students more time in which to enlist and still remain in school, the rush subsided considerably. The main cause for enlistments was the hatred of students for the draft and their desire to select their own branch of the service. Probably a good many enlistees were not too careful to investigate all phases of what their enlistments would require, if we may believe student papers. Many rushed into four-year enlistments when they might have satisfied requirements for

military service under the draft in twenty-one months. Arlington State College, Arlington, Texas, lost 107 students during the first semester; Los Angeles City College's *Collegian* for January 29, carried the boiler-plate headings, "Draft Rules Block Forecast of New Campus Population," and explained the uncertainties faced by the college in making accurate judgments of enrollments. A newsletter from Palos Verdes College, Rolling Hills, California, has this statement: "The changed world situation, since last summer, has sent numbers of young men into the armed services, others into expanded industries, many young women into new jobs, and most serious of all, has brought about an apathy and cynicism on the part of many young people who see little use in starting or continuing a college program."

Morgan Park Junior College, Chicago, will close junior college work at the end of the present academic year, according to an announcement from Dean Dodd. The entire facilities of the institution will be used for the further expansion of the military academy and will continue to serve boys in the elementary and high school ages. The coeducational junior college has been operating on the same campus with the Morgan Park Military Academy.

Edgewood Junior College properties located in Barrington, Rhode Island, have been purchased by Providence Bible Insti-

tute. The Bible Institute obtained the property for \$331,001 under sealed bids. This was a margin of only one dollar. Dean Crum stated to this writer that several hours were spent in prayer before the final bid was submitted.

Pine Manor Junior College, Wellesley, Massachusetts, announces that a new curriculum in Creative Arts will be introduced at the college in the fall of 1951. It is being planned for students whose major interests and aptitudes are in the fields of drama, music, dance, design and painting. Enrollments in this curriculum, for the first year, will be limited to twenty-five students. The program for the first year will be, as announced, Introduction to Writing, Basic Workshop of three hours of class work and six of laboratory and three courses to be elected in Art fields of special interest; second year, Our Cultural Heritage, Advanced Workshop of six hours per week of class and twelve of laboratory, and two electives in Art fields. The curriculum is not planned for students who wish to transfer for advanced work in arts

and sciences. It is stated, however, that it can be used as the basis for further professional study and training in professional schools of the various arts.

Junior College Bowls. Junior colleges have the bowl fever. Desert, Gold Dust, Potato, Optimist, Redwood, Rose and Sequoia—all seven in California; Gulf, Oleander, and Rose in Texas; Evergreen and Bremerton Shrine in Washington; Lions and Memorial in Mississippi; Golden Isle in Georgia and Junior Sugar in Louisiana; Kansas and Coffey Cup in the Sunflower State.

Sheldon Jackson Junior College, Sitka, Alaska, is constructing a new classroom building with the expectation that it will be ready for occupancy this fall. *The Vestovian*, student paper for the junior college, states in the January issue: "The building season has been unusually good with very little cold weather." Young men in the college have given considerable assistance in the construction work. The addition to the college will be used largely for home economics.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

DURING the past several months the *Desk* has been cluttered. First, there was the national excitement created by the Korean war, the declaration of an emergency by the President and the resulting efforts of the Department of Defense to lower the draft age to 18. These three things following closely on the heels of each other have had a profound effect on education in the United States. The first event has caused the federalization of some units of the National Guard in which a considerable number of junior college students were enlisted. It has caused a greater increase in taxes. It has taken a good many teachers from the schools, both high school and college.

The declaration of the state of emergency placed people on a higher degree of tension. It has been followed with almost constant talk and newspaper reports and discussions of war with Russia. War has been accepted by many only as a question of time rather than a possibility or probability. This talk has gone so far that it is now devoted to discussions of strategy. The so-called Great Debate is underway with respect to numbers of troops to be committed to Europe for ground action and by whose authority they may be committed.

For weeks, hearings have been held before committees on the Armed Services regarding the

amendments to the Selective Service Act of 1948 as amended in 1950. Tied to this effort to amend the Act is an all-out drive to provide for a system of universal military service and training for all young men arriving at age 18. Frightened by the prospects of the extension of the draft and disturbed by the world situation in general, students by the thousands have dropped their books and enlisted. These enlistments have reached down into high schools and in a few instances into the grade schools.

As of the present time, matters concerning students and the Armed Services have, generally speaking, settled down somewhat. How long they will remain that way is anyone's guess. At least one thing is certain: what is done in Washington resounds not only around the world, but reaches down into people's pockets and takes more money or even takes the money before it reaches the pocketbook. It reaches into the homes of the people and takes their young men, sends them to the four corners of the earth to fight and often to die. It regulates the prices, now frozen at the highest peak in the history of this country, which people must pay for the food they eat, the clothing they wear, the rent they pay. We wonder if there's anyone left in this country, dead as a dodo, who is not

interested in national legislation.

In the midst of the discussions of what should be done, junior colleges find themselves in many respects with their backs to the wall. This situation often arises because of the lack of understanding of what the junior colleges are. A great deal of time and energy has been spent in an educational program, person by person, in various departments of the federal government. We are convinced of one thing: namely, that junior colleges must stand on their own feet and fight their own battles. While this is not a criticism of new movements like the junior colleges in the United States, we believe it is nonetheless true that they have had a tendency to look to other organizations to speak for them. Junior colleges, we believe, must unite to speak as a unit and with greater independence. They will either look out for themselves or be left behind.

Independence and courage to express convictions do not preclude the fullest possible cooperation with all agencies interested in essentially the same objectives. These qualities increase cooperation by the simple fact that those who have them lend greater strength to the total effort. They are not riders, but pushers; not drones, but workers. Since 1930, this writer has been attending the national conventions of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Year by year, he has been impressed by the fact that a core of

people have taken the leading role although the rank and file of the members have been urged to lend a hand. This year, the convention has been so organized that over 100 people will have places of leadership, and everyone attending the convention will have an opportunity to express his or her views and contribute to the better development of the movement. While we cannot forecast the success of this newer method for conventions, responses indicate that it will be successful. What is needed is the further extension of this kind of effort until practically every person engaged in junior college education will participate in some form of activity.

Visiting scores of classrooms in junior colleges, as we do, we are impressed by general lack of student participation. If one will look about the campus of any junior college, he will probably observe that few really play the game and the crowds sit on the bleachers. Participation, active and constructive, should be one of the aims of every college for the masses of the students, both in classrooms and in extracurricular fields. The same aim is needed in the American Association. The slogan for the 1947 conference in St. Louis was, "In Peace as in War — Teamwork!" That slogan could well be the battle cry of junior colleges everywhere — teamwork, united, independent and strong to fight alone or with many for the kind of work junior colleges can do!

Notes on the Authors

MARION GAITHER KENNEDY

The Availability and Utilization of Specific Audio-Visual Aids in the Business Departments of Selected Junior Colleges is a summary of the thesis ALICE L. SADLER wrote for the master's degree at Indiana University. Miss Sadler is an assistant professor at Delta State Teacher's College, Cleveland, Mississippi.

LOUIS A. RICE has contributed *A Suggested Student Personnel Philosophy for the Junior College*. Rice has been president of Packard Junior College, New York, N. Y., since 1938. He is the editor of Volume I of the *American Business Education Yearbook*.

LLOYD A. GARRISON, dean of the graduate college and director of the school of education at the University of Denver, has written a noteworthy criticism of *Leadership in American Education*.

Junior College Prospects and a Guide

for its *Legal Propagation* is based on the doctor's thesis RAYMOND J. YOUNG wrote at the University of Colorado. Young is at present assistant professor of secondary education at Oklahoma A. & M.

In making *An Analysis of Health Interests of 1,000 Junior College Students in California*, JOSEPH E. LANTAGNE has used as a guide the health interest survey of Dr. Oliver E. Byrd of Stanford University. Lantagne is assistant professor of health and physical education at the Santa Barbara College of the University of California.

CHARLES A. WEDEMEYER has written an interesting account of the effectiveness of the *Use of the Morale-Type Survey on the College Level*. Mr. Wedemeyer is director of the Racine Extension Center of the University of Wisconsin.

Recent Writings

JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

Grace, Alonzo G., Editor. *Leadership in American Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

In July of 1950 the University of Chicago and Northwestern University conducted their annual "Co-Operative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools." The report of this meeting is given the title, *Leadership in American Education*.

In the preface appears this statement of purpose by Dr. Grace who, with Dr. Eugene Lawler, directed the meeting: "The 1950 Conference was held during the early days of the Korean aggression; and the theme of this Conference may have been a prophetic implication of the wisdom, courage, character, and the devotion to the principles of freedom which educational leadership will be called upon to demonstrate in the months and years ahead."

The first three chapters by Dr. Grace, Dr. Reeves, and Dr. Counts reveal the effects of leadership, or the lack of it, in Germany, Russia, and the Philippines. These three chapters apparently are used to demonstrate how, in three very different settings, education has been used as an instrument of national policy as determined by political leaders, and, by implication, that in

this country such leadership must be prevented. Further, that the nationalism of education inevitably results in political rather than professional leadership.

Carroll Shartle and Marvin Seeman of Ohio State University report in Chapters IV and V on their preliminary studies of the nature of leadership using an "interdisciplinary" approach. Drawing largely upon the fields of economics, sociology, and psychology the Personnel Research Board has made attempts to analyze "high brass" in business, industry, and a few selected public school systems. These findings are inconclusive but appear to indicate that (1) the approach is a fruitful one, (2) the nature of the groups affects the nature of leadership, (3) administrators tend to select assistants whose "patterns" complement their own, and (4) the administrator highest in the organizational hierarchy tends to influence patterns of subordinates to fit his own.

Representing the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, O. H. Roberts, who is President of the Indiana School Boards Association, presents the layman's point of view in Chapter VI. He stresses the idea that "In education there is the growing realization that leadership cannot

be left to the professional any more than government can be left to a professional ruling class." He proceeds to develop the idea that citizen groups must understand, support, and control public education. His principal concern appears to be to insure that education make clear "to each generation the challenge to which it must respond."

The role of state boards of education is discussed by Albert I. Prince in Chapter VII. An able spokesman with seventeen years of state board service in Connecticut, Mr. Prince states the arguments for appointed boards with overlapping terms. He emphasizes the view that though education is conceded to be a state function, state boards can achieve success only through cooperation with local boards and lay groups. "Allocation of authority amongst state and local agencies should stimulate effective local initiative and control of schools and operate so as to permit the state board to be a service rather than a controlling agency."

Discussing personality as a factor in administrative leadership, Milton S. Muelder of Michigan State College says, "Perhaps nowhere does the importance of the role of the individual emerge so dramatically as in the formulation of policy." To substantiate this point he describes the activities of Secretary Morgenthau and his "plan," of Dr. Alonzo Grace and his place in the changing of occupation policies in Germany, and of Gen-

eral Clay in his remodeling of the entire occupational plan.

A major problem pointed out in this chapter is that of preparing potential administrators to fill the shoes of the boss. When a key administrator leaves, a partial vacuum is formed for a time but other leaders soon filter in to replace him. How are they selected, trained? Further, Professor Muelder emphasizes the necessity of administrators to communicate, for through communication ideas are received and spread and understanding negotiated. The good administrator must sincerely believe in the mission of his organization and if he becomes convinced that this mission is being violated, he must be willing to resign on grounds of principle.

Assuming that the federal government through its Office of Education should play a vital leadership role in American education, Edgar Fuller, Executive Secretary, National Council of Chief State School Officers, states the case for complete reorganization at the federal level as proposed by his organization.

Essentially, a plan is proposed that would have the Commissioner report directly to the President. The Commissioner would then work with a national appointed board of eleven members as in the states of Connecticut, New York, or Missouri. Using the National Science Foundation Act as an accomplished example, Mr. Fuller believes that

a highly practicable organization can be developed and that the danger of federal control can be averted.

Following Chapter IX are the reports of commissions and some of the detailed discussions of problems. These reports show that even after listening to the prepared papers there were many ideas at variance with those of the speakers and that the characteristics and ways and means are as difficult to

detect and define as they are to achieve in practice.

There is no question of the need for careful study of leaders and leadership. This little volume makes some contribution. In the opinion of the reviewer, however, outside of Chapter VIII there is little that is pointed or substantial. Several parts, notably Chapters IV and V, are definitely disappointing.

LLOYD A. GARRISON

Selected Reference

H. F. BRIGHT

Leffler, Emil, "A Motivation Technique for Aiding Freshmen in Academic Difficulty." *College and University*, XXVI (January, 1951), 280-284.

The Academic Dean of Albion College sets forth in this article a procedure which may be worth consideration in many junior colleges—particularly in view of the fact that a basic tenet of the junior college philosophy is concerned with individualized treatment of students.

Before the procedure is described it is well to state a primary assumption: that all the usual methods for correcting student difficulties have been tried. For example, it is necessary to know that the academic failure of the student under consideration is not due to the more obvious factors such as lack of ability, health problems, inadequate preparation and poor study habits. If any factors such as these are present, increased motivation may not be sufficient to overcome them.

However, if the student appears to be suffering from none of these factors and is still getting into difficulties and if he appears anxious to do better, the following plan seems to offer possibilities.

Often it appears wise soon after mid-semester for a student to drop a course or two in order to concentrate on his remaining work. In such cases a grade of "S" is entered, meaning

"course suspended." The student's average at mid-semester is computed for the courses not dropped. When the final grades are in, they are arranged for the same courses. If the student has improved the average, his registration for each of the courses in which "S" has been entered is cancelled. Otherwise the "S" becomes a failing grade.

Since the courses offering most difficulty have been dropped, it is usually possible for students to better their grades. If the grades are not bettered under these conditions, it seems unlikely that external motivation can do the trick.

The author points out the following advantages of the plan:

1. It appeals to the students as being eminently fair.
2. It reconciles students more readily to a reduced load.
3. It is done only after other possibilities have been exhausted.
4. It does not remove the penalty for failure to improve.
5. It permits the student a fresh start.
6. It is limited to freshmen.

At Albion the plan has been used for sixteen years. During the past eleven years 63 of 109 men bettered their averages and 38 of 49 women also succeeded. Most of the students who bettered their averages went on to graduate. The author claims for the plan a degree of motivation for selected freshmen and cautions that its limited application has doubtless been strongly operative in its success.

Program of the Thirty-first Annual Meeting

Hotel Fort Des Moines, Des Moines, Iowa

Sunday, March 4, 1951

- 9:15-12:00 a.m. Board of Directors, Editorial Board, Administration Committee, Curriculum Committee, Legislation Committee, Student Personnel Committee, Teacher Preparation Committee
- 2:00-4:00 p.m. Board of Directors, Committees
- 4:00-5:00 p.m. Joint Meeting, Board of Directors and All Committees

Monday, March 5

- 9:15-12:00 a.m. Board of Directors, Committees
- 1:00- 2:00 p.m. All Discussion Chairmen, Recorders and Resource Persons
- 2:15- 4:00 p.m. Board of Directors, Committees
- 3:00- 5:00 p.m. INFORMAL "GET-ACQUAINTED" TEA
- 4:00- 5:00 p.m. Board of Directors and Committee on Coordination
- 6:30- 9:30 p.m. DEFENSE DINNER

Eugene B. Chaffee and Basil H. Peterson, *presiding*

Invocation—Theodore H. Wilson, *President*, University of Baltimore Junior College

Entertainment—Northwestern Junior College Dutch Dozen, Orange City, Mrs. Gerrit Noteboom, *Director*

Greetings—Miss Jessie Parker, *Superintendent*, Public Instruction for Iowa

Symposium—"Junior Colleges in National Defense—Possible Programs," William R. Wood, *Junior College Specialist*, U. S. Office of Education; Howard O. Johnson, *Specialist*, Bureau of Naval Personnel, U. S. Navy; Lawrence L. Bethel, *Director*, New Haven YMCA Junior College

Tuesday, March 6

7:30- 9:00 a.m. BREAKFAST FOR WOMEN

9:15-12:00 a.m. FIRST GENERAL SESSION

Devotions—J. Knudsen, *President*, Grand View College

Music—Fort Dodge Junior College Choir, Clayton Hathaway,
Director

Welcome Address—The Honorable William S. Beardsley, *Governor*, State of Iowa

President's Address—"Our Nation, Our Youth and Junior Colleges," Eugene B. Chaffee

Keynote Address—"The Case of Western Democracy vs. Russian Communism," Virgil M. Hancher, *President*, State University of Iowa

12:15- 2:00 p.m. REGIONAL LUNCHEONS

Middle States—Hugh G. Price, *President*;

H. G. Harmon, *President*, Drake University, *Speaker*

New England—Lawrence L. Bethel, *President*

"Nursing Education," Ralph R. Fields, Teachers College, Columbia University, *Speaker*

North Central—Albert G. Dodd, *President*

Northwest and California—G. O. Kildow and J. Paul Mohr,
Presidents

Round Table Discussion on "Acceleration"

Southern—James M. Ewing, *President*

Harvey H. Davis, State University of Iowa, and Harry Jenkins, Tyler Junior College, *Speakers*

2:15- 4:15 p.m. TWENTY DISCUSSION GROUPS

4:30 p.m. TEA AND VISIT TO GRAND VIEW COLLEGE

8:15 p.m. THEATRE PARTY

Wednesday, March 7

9:15-12:00 a.m. TWENTY DISCUSSION GROUPS

12:15- 2:00 p.m. LUNCHEON FOR WOMEN

2:00- 4:00 p.m. SECOND GENERAL SESSION

Devotions—H. V. E. Stegeman, *Registrar*, Northwestern Junior College

Music—Burlington Junior College String Ensemble, Miss Dorothy Baumle, *Director*

Report—Jesse P. Bogue, *Executive Secretary*

Address—"The Continuing Essentials of Education," Arthur S. Adams, *President*, American Council on Education

6:30- 9:30 p.m. ANNUAL BANQUET

Invocation—Louis C. La Motte, *President*, Presbyterian Junior College

Music—Graceland College Concert Choir, Henry Anderson, *Director*

Address—"The Community in National Security," Livingston L. Blair, *Vice-President*, American National Red Cross

Thursday, March 8

7:30- 9:00 a.m. PHI DELTA KAPPA BREAKFAST

Henry W. Littlefield, *Chairman*

"The Community College in the Community," Lawrence L. Bethel, *Speaker*

9:15-12:00 a.m. THIRD GENERAL SESSION

Devotions—E. J. Gleazer, Jr., *President*, Graceland College

Music—Grand View College Choir, Oluf Lund, *Director*

Report—James W. Reynolds, *Editor*, Junior College Journal

Report—C. C. Colvert, *Research Director*

Report—Karl W. Bigelow, *Convention Observer*

Report—Frederick J. Marston, *Chairman*, Finance Committee

Report—Resolutions Committee

Report—Nominating Committee

Election of Officers

1:30- 3:30 p.m. Board of Directors, Committees

Convention Committees

HOSPITALITY

Charles Hill, *Chairman*

E. J. Aalberts	A. W. Langerak
D. D. Davis	J. F. Loper
W. A. Erbe	T. C. Ruggles
E. J. Gleazer, Jr.	D. D. Stonecoker
O. E. Johnson	J. P. Street

Miss Willetta Strahan, *Chairman for Women*

Mrs. E. J. Gleazer, Jr.	Mrs. A. W. Langerak
Mrs. W. B. Hammer	Mrs. J. F. Loper
Mrs. Charles Hill	Mrs. A. C. Nielsen
Mrs. J. Knudsen	Mrs. Paul B. Sharar
	Mrs. J. P. Street

Representing the North Central Council of Junior Colleges

Arkansas—E. Q. Brothers	Minnesota—Roy W. Goddard
Colorado—Marvin Kundson	Missouri—Frederick Marston
Illinois—Elmer Rowley	Nebraska—Emory A. Austin
Iowa—Arthur Acosta	Oklahoma—Bruce G. Carter
Sister Mary Cortona	West Virginia—F. W. Thompson
Kansas—Fred Cinotto	Wisconsin—La Velle Thompson Maze
Michigan—John H. McKenzie	Wyoming—M. F. Griffith

SERVICE

Howard Hughes, *Chairman*

Louis Bosveld	James McFadgen
Robert Everetts	B. R. Miller
Hugh Ghormley	Oscar J. Ourth
V. A. Gunn	M. I. Ritchie

PUBLICITY

W. B. Hammer, *Chairman*

C. H. Beem	A. C. Nielsen
Joe Burnham	J. R. Thorngren
C. T. Feelhaver	C. E. Thorsen